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A HANDBOOK FOR TEACHERS OF ENGLISH
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THIS HANDBOOK WAS PREPARED BY TEACHERS OF ADULTS, BASED ON THEIR PRACTICAL EXPERIENCE, AS A GUIDE FOR THOSE NEWLY ASSIGNED TO TEACH ENGLISH IN THE AMERICANIZATION PROGRAM OF CALIFORNIA'S ADULT SCHOOLS. CHAPTERS COVER TEACHER QUALIFICATIONS, STUDENT CHARACTERISTICS, WHAT TO TEACH (IN WHICH THE CURRICULUM IS OULINED FOR FOUR SEQUENTIAL LEVELS), TEXTBOOK SELECTION, EVALUATION (THROUGH TESTING AND BY TEACHER OBSERVATION, AND TEACHER SELF-EVALUATION), AND ADMINISTRATION OF THE PROGRAM. THE AUDIOLINGUAL APPROACH TO TEACHING ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE IS EMPHASIZED, INCLUDING SPEAKING, WRITING, AND READING ENGLISH, PATTERN PRACTICE, AND TEACHING AIDS. REFERENCES FOLLOW EACH CHAPTER. (AJ)

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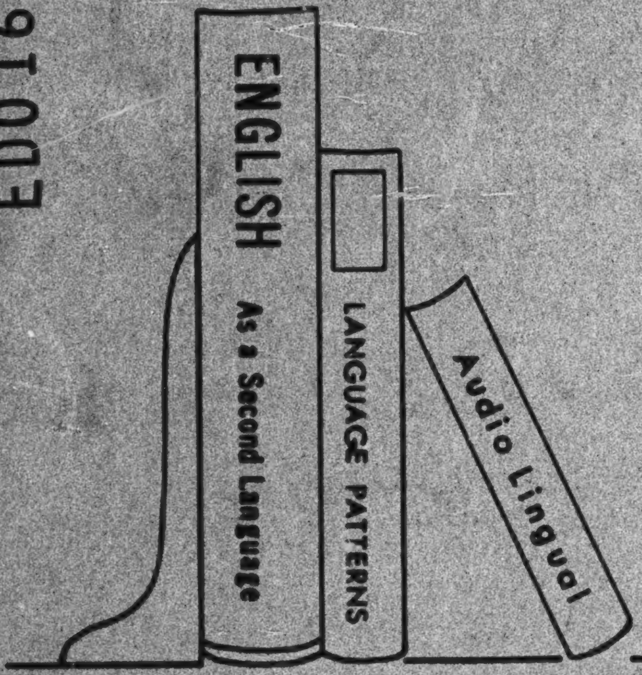
ENGLISH
As a Second Language
LANGUAGE PATTERNS
Audio Lingual

A Handbook for Teachers of English

(Americanization-Literacy)

REVISED EDITION

CALIFORNIA STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Max Rafferty—Superintendent of Public Instruction
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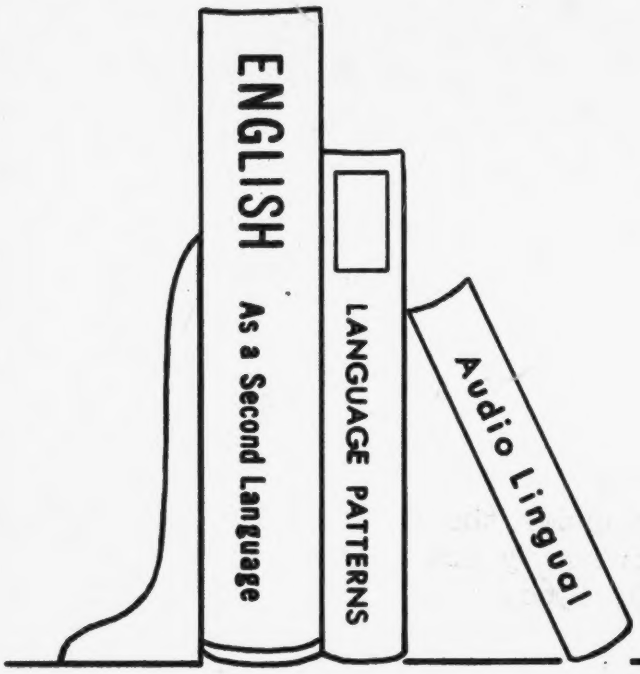
ENGLISH As a Second Language
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A Handbook for Teachers of English

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U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION

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REVISED EDITION

Prepared Under the Direction of

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PREFACE

This handbook, which was prepared by teachers of adults, is a guide for those newly assigned to the teaching of English in the Americanization program of California's adult schools, and in publishing this handbook the Department of Education is providing these new teachers with a readable and useful guide based on the practical experience of people in the field. With the cooperation of Edward D. Goldman, Assistant Superintendent, Adult and Vocational Education, and Dalton Howatt, Coordinator, Adult Education, of the San Francisco City Unified School District, the following adult education personnel of that district acted as consultants in the writing of this handbook:

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The publication should not be viewed as a final product. Suggestions for improving the document should be sent to the Bureau of Adult Education, California State Department of Education, 721 Capitol Mall, Sacramento 95814.

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Chapter I

THE TEACHER

We have come a long way from the day when practically any instructor was considered a qualified teacher of English as a second language. For many years, such teaching afforded after-hours' employment for many, but it was certainly not considered the career opportunity that it is today. We are in the process of developing commonly agreed upon methods for teaching English as a second language and of accumulating extensive professional knowledge in the field. The techniques and the condescending attitudes of the amateur are no longer acceptable. The non-English speaking person in our society wants to learn the language quickly and thoroughly; personal dignity, the desire for social acceptance and equality of status, and employment requirements demand this. By means of modern language teaching techniques and through the use of well-designed programs of instruction, it is now possible for the experienced teacher to do the job more efficiently and effectively than at any time in the past.

We no longer spend endless hours analyzing sentences and having students commit long rules of prescriptive grammar to memory. The use of controlled sentence patterns, controlled introduction of pronunciation variations and vocabulary items, and the audio-lingual method have long made the teaching of English a highly specialized task which is demanding but most rewarding. New words, new idioms, new sounds, and new sentence patterns are incorporated daily into the students' vocabularies so that progress is constant, and the student evaluates and is aware of his individual progress. In no other teaching situation with adults is the student so eager to learn, and in few other situations is the teacher's role so important.

The public school in the United States has always been the catalyst and the vehicle for bringing together all of the diverse elements in our society and perpetuating and restating the purposes of our social, political, and economic institutions. The teacher of English as a second language must impart knowledge, create self-confidence, teach skills, and guide and counsel a group of adults ranging in age from eighteen to eighty and perhaps speaking a multitude of languages. To the students, the teacher represents the best of America and speaks the ideal American speech. The teacher should always be aware of the central position he temporarily holds in the lives of these students; they depend on him to explain the bewildering life around them. The teacher is an informant not only of the language but also of the sum total of the ways of thinking, acting, and doing which we call "American" culture. For the teacher to understand his relationship to the class and the individuals within it, he must picture himself uprooted, transported to another country, cut off by a language barrier from communication with others in the community, faced with the complexities of a highly technological society entirely different in many respects from that to which he is accustomed, and determine in his mind what he would wish to receive in the way of instruction from his language teacher.

Teaching methods have changed in recent years, but the qualities necessary for creative teaching have not. What kind of person is ideally suited to teach this vital and important subject? Above all, he must like teaching and enjoy being with adults of different cultural backgrounds. He should have a thorough understanding of the English language, literature, composition, and history. This teacher of English as a second language should be attuned to speech changes constantly occurring, and he should be highly sensitive to words and word usage.

In addition, the teacher of adults should be attuned to the values and interests of each age group. A young man or woman comes to school with interests and a background quite different from those possessed by a person sixty years of age. The teacher must not only know his own country; he should also acquire knowledge of other nations and cultures in order to understand his students' needs, habits, and customs. It is a difficult if not impossible task to understand all the different cultures involved; yet the teacher of adults must attempt to gain such knowledge if he is to gain the confidence and respect of the students necessary for successful teaching. All of this does not mean that the teacher acts as the only instructor; he should not hesitate to direct the student to other community agencies for assistance and guidance after it has been determined that the student understands fully his relationship to such other agencies. The teacher-student relationship is a professional one, and the counseling function is primarily educational, not personal.

It is not necessary for the teacher of English as a second language to be fluent in another tongue, but a knowledge of the characteristics of the languages spoken by the students is at least an asset; some would consider it essential. Such a knowledge will reveal the particular difficulties the students will have in learning English. For example, an examination and comparison of the English and Spanish languages indicates that Spanish speaking students will have special difficulty enunciating properly the following consonant sounds: bite; dog; hat; jet; Nan; ran; both; the; ten; sing. Vowel sounds will present even greater difficulty since there are eight English vowel sounds that do not occur at all in Spanish, and there are two vowel sounds that are so similar to Spanish vowel phonemes that Spanish speaking people commonly substitute one for the other.

Another general problem in the proper pronunciation of English for such students arises from the fact that whereas in English the practice is to end syllables with consonants, this is not true of Spanish. It is this kind of knowledge regarding foreign languages that a teacher of English as a second language will find desirable. Although a speaking knowledge of another language may be helpful to the teacher in conversing privately with individuals in the class, the bilingual teacher must exercise care regarding the use of the other language in the classroom. By speaking the other language, the teacher may be isolating all other students in the classroom who do not speak that language. The teacher of English has a responsibility to speak only English to the class.

Well-designed textbooks and audio-visual aids and materials are abundant in teaching English as a second language, but the teacher will not be able to rely on prepared lessons and commercially developed materials exclusively; sometimes, for example, pantomime will be the only means of communicating an idea or fact. Imagination, creativity, ingenuity, good health, and abundant energy will always be necessary.

Teachers in the field have found courses and study in the following areas to be of special interest:

1. Linguistics: phonemics, syntax, intonation
2. Educational psychology: theories of learning
3. Methodology of language teaching
4. Student teaching
5. Preparation of teaching materials; evaluative instruments; study of audio-visual aids and instruction in their use
6. Cultural anthropology

Classes in these fields are commonly offered by the state colleges, the University of California, and private colleges and universities in the state. As part of their inservice training programs, school districts and offices of county superintendents of schools sponsor meetings and workshops for teachers in English as a second language. It should also be noted that the observation of classes conducted by experienced teachers can be of inestimable aid to the new teacher.

The experience and the knowledge gained as a teacher of English as a second language will not only affect that teacher's professional growth but also will enhance his personal development.

SELECTED REFERENCES

Brooks, Nelson. Language and Language Learning (Second edition). New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, 1960.

Considered by many teachers to be the most definitive study of modern language teaching, it is easy to read and covers many helpful topics: Mother Tongue and Second Language, Language Teaching, Language and Culture, and Language and Literature. Every language teacher should read it.

Commager, Henry Steele. America in Perspective. New York: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 1947.

The United States is viewed through foreign eyes in 21 essays edited with notes by the author. It includes writings by travelers and journalists from other countries -- de Tocqueville to Eugene Petrov.

Hall, Edward T. The Silent Language. Greenwich, Conn.: Fawcett Publications, Inc., 1959.

A leading anthropologist reveals how people "talk" to each other without the use of words. It is a very useful book for all teachers of English as a second language.

Hall, Robert A., Jr. Leave Your Language Alone. Ithaca, N.Y.: Linguistica, 1950. (Revised edition titled Linguistics and Your Language.)

This fascinating and revolutionary book written for the layman or general reader describes the science of linguistics and its bearing on everyday problems in connection with language: correctness, spelling, foreign language study, and linguistic internationalism. Considered a revolutionary approach to teaching when it was first published, it still brings strong reactions from English teachers and grammarians.

Lado, Robert. Linguistics Across Cultures. Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press, 1957.

The techniques in the analysis of and comparison of two languages and cultures are presented in this publication.

Montagu, Ashley. The Cultured Man. New York: World Publishing Co., 1958.

This provocative and challenging book answers three important questions: (1) What is the cultured man? (2) What does "culture"

mean in America? and (3) What is your "culture" quotient? Not everyone will agree with Dr. Montague, but the information contained in this book is interesting and would be very helpful in an advanced English class.

Stewart, George R. American Ways of Life. New York: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1954.

This book grew out of the author's experiences as a Fulbright lecturer in Greece when he tried to explain his native land and its people to students at the University of Athens. This is a shrewd and penetrating look at the American nation, language, religions, food, drink, clothing, housing, recreation, holidays, and art. It is stimulating and very helpful.

Chapter II

THE STUDENT

Generalizations about the characteristics of adult school students are difficult to make and easily challenged. Any group of students learning English as a second language probably comes from more diverse backgrounds and has more varied goals than any student group made up of native Americans. Not only do the individual students have different personal reasons for wanting to learn, but they also come from different environmental backgrounds. While no inclusive statement can or should be made concerning students from any one country, certain general characteristics based upon varying national philosophies are apparent. Since cultural variations result in differing attitudes toward teachers and the school, the teacher should study the students' cultures in order to relate to his class more effectively. The teacher will discover that to many in his class he represents an authority symbol--a person of substance and dignity somewhat different in image from the American stereotyped "teacher." To others in the class, possibly native-born citizens unable for one reason or another to have obtained an elementary education previously, the school may represent a thwarting agency, and the teacher is not seen necessarily as either an authority figure or a counselor.

Perhaps the majority of adult students are those seeking employment or vocational advancement. Most of them are serious and attentive in class but inclined to be a little impatient with what they may feel is extraneous material. For example, pronunciation and pattern practice exercises may not seem as important to them as to the teacher since frequently they will confuse aural understanding of the language with ability to speak it competently. Often the student looking for work will learn what he considers to be enough English to get a job; then the student will drop the class even though the teacher tells him that with insufficient English he cannot make the most of whatever other opportunities may be made available to him in the future. A weakness of the audio-lingual method is that unless the instruction includes literacy and reading instruction, the students at intermediate and advanced levels will not be challenged intellectually and may accept the verbal competence of the functional illiterate. Realizing that the adult learner has a family, an occupation, and social interests, the thoughtful teacher will build success into the course through the use of audio-lingual methods, but also he will keep his students aware that command of the language means more than the ability to comprehend the spoken word. If this were not the case, in our elementary schools we would terminate the child's educational program at entry level grade three and encourage him to seek all further knowledge through chance association and random opportunity.

The typical English class in the Americanization-literacy program may include any or all of the following groups of students at all age levels, of all races, and of both sexes:

1. The foreign born spouses of American citizens

2. Foreign born adults temporarily visiting the United States for study or as tourists

3. Foreign born immigrants (representing various levels of education in their native lands) who have entered the United States with the goal of seeking United States citizenship

4. Displaced persons and political refugees who may or may not be fully reconciled to permanent residence away from their native country

5. Native born citizens who cannot speak English fluently

6. Native born citizens who are illiterate and who may speak a regional or local dialect rather than standard American speech

The teacher of English as a second language can be certain of one thing: each of his students comes to his class initially because he recognizes the necessity of learning English and all that that implies. A teacher's success will depend at least partly upon his ability to identify the reasons each of his students has for enrolling.

Successful teaching will require more than identifying the cultural, environmental, and language differences that may interfere with instruction. The teacher should attempt to identify variations in learning ability caused by physical factors and differences in intellectual ability. Adults can learn, but they cannot learn as rapidly as young children. The decline in learning ability is slight between the ages of twenty-five and fifty and does not increase too rapidly after fifty unless physical deterioration of the nervous system occurs as a result of a variety of physical causes. Since hearing and visual defects are found more frequently among adult students than among school children, such physical defects should be identified; careful observation on the part of the teacher is often the first step in making such identification. Poor health, malnutrition, and problems of personal adjustment are all factors that may affect the student. As noted in Chapter I, auxiliary agencies in the community may be of help in correcting or ameliorating many of these conditions.

To teach English as a second language, it will be helpful for each teacher to remember the following:

1. All normal adults can learn.

2. All normal adults can learn to speak any language, including English.

3. Most adult students are capable, highly motivated people.
4. If taught well, most students will stay with a teacher of English as a second language since they know that their future depends upon their ability to understand, to speak, to read, and to write English.

In order to do the job well, the teacher must learn more about course content, teaching methods, self-evaluation of his teaching, and evaluation of the students' progress.

SELECTED REFERENCES

Black, John W. American Speech for Foreign Students. Springfield, Ill.: Charles C. Thomas, Publisher, 1963.

A fairly complete edition for the foreign students, this book describes American speech and gives exercises in speech and listening. The chapter addressed to the student at the beginning of the book is helpful in presenting the student's problems.

Brooks, Nelson. "Culture and Language Instruction." Teacher's Notebook in Modern Foreign Languages. New York: Harcourt, Brace & World. Spring, 1966.

Though characteristics of foreign students are not dealt with directly, the author provides excellent material on the interrelationship of culture and language.

Cass, Angelica W., and Arthur P. Crabtree. "Students," in Adult Elementary Education. New York: Noble and Noble Publishers, Inc., 1956. Part II, pp. 17 - 40.

This is a good summary of the psychology of adult learning and the characteristics of adult students, both foreign and native born.

Lado, Robert. Linguistics Across Cultures: Applied Linguistics for Language Teachers. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1947.

The author compares the native language and that being learned in terms of problems involved, and he discusses culture and language as being interrelated.

Sasnett, Martena. Foreign Students Look at the U. S. Los Angeles: Cole-Holmquist Press, 1960.

This collection of essays written by foreign students gives excellent insight into the personalities, problems, and impressions of these students.

The National Association of Public School Adult Educators. When You're Teaching Adults. Washington, D. C., 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., 1959.

This is a particularly informative bulletin concerning adult students, who they are, and how they are taught.

Chapter III

WHAT TO TEACH

A new teacher of English as a second language is often appalled at the diversity of ages, backgrounds, and interests of the members of his class. Each student seems to require individual programs of instruction, materials, and methods. Faced with this situation, the new teacher asks: What should be put in the course? What should be left out? What should be emphasized?

Unless a teacher has had special training, including practice teaching, he may decide to teach English the way he was taught; he often forgets that he already knew the language before he began formal study. This teacher may often dwell on things he liked in English, such as literature or poetry, and he may avoid what he disliked. He may also assume that all he needs is a textbook that includes rules and exercises. He may feel that if he gives students clear explanations regarding the grammar, helps them to memorize and spell words, and shows them how to do the written exercises in the textbook, the students will be able to put words together and remember them as needed when speaking, reading, and writing.

To many people, language learning means grammar, and yet no necessary connection exists between the knowledge of grammar and words--hence, language study means memorizing the meaning of words. Yet, specialists in the field of linguistics and language learning have stressed the importance of developing correct language habits based on the basic sentence patterns in English. The learning of words may actually impede a student's progress if he takes English words and puts them into the word order of his language and utters them within the sound system of his language, using his intonation and stress patterns. Learning a new language is different in that the sound system, the sentence patterns, and even the culture interfere with what the student is trying to learn.

What specific form of the English language is taught? Do teachers teach the formal language that emphasizes how a person should speak? Or do they teach the vernacular of the street as being correct since it is used by many people? Realizing that language does change slowly by usage and that some forms become archaic, teachers attempt to teach that which they believe is spoken by the majority of the people.

Both general and specific goals of language learning should also be considered. Students usually have to do more than read and write or communicate in "pidgin English and pantomime." They need to be able to speak clearly and understand spoken language for which they themselves do not set the pace. However, a student may never lose all of his accent or his own stress patterns. And he may never be interested in or be able to read and to discuss the deeper meanings of literature and poetry. The curriculum of the English program should be so designed that it will enable the pupils upon completing the program to continue to study and read by themselves.

In the course of study which follows, curriculum for four sequential levels has been outlined. The first three levels have been designed to help the student learn the English he will need to communicate in most practical situations. After completing the first three levels, many students terminate their formal study, feeling that their needs have been met. Level four is designed to help the student extend and refine his knowledge of English based upon the structures of the language he has already learned. The formal elements of English required for additional study of the language is also included in the fourth level.

LEVEL I

The Sound System

The vowel and consonant sounds in English, intonation patterns, and the stress and rhythm of the language are included in a study of the sound system.

A. Phonology

The sounds of the language should be taught first. Very few students are aware of this and attempt to learn a new language by using the sounds of their native tongue. In English, with its hundreds of contrasted monosyllabic words, the exact pronunciation of sounds is extremely important. Many foreign students learning English have had some instruction in English in their own countries. Their training in learning the sounds of English, usually sketchy and frequently incorrect, can be a handicap. It is not unusual for a teacher to have to spend considerable time in providing remedial teaching of the sounds of the language.

Instruction in phonology may be integrated with conversation and structure so that it is taught in context; i.e., the plural sounds of /s/, /z/, and /iz/ as in: THE BOOKS ARE NEW: THE RUGS ARE NEW; and THE GLASSES ARE NEW. One of the phonetic alphabets can be used in teaching English. Its use will tend to prevent interference from English orthography; however, the student must be oriented as to the value of one phonetic alphabet so that he will accept its usage.

B. Intonation

In addition to the sounds per se, intonation must be included in the study of spoken English; otherwise, the stress and rhythm patterns of the native language will cause poor production of English.

The English sentence ends with a falling tone as to questions asked for information purposes. Questions necessitating a yes-no answer, however, use a rising pitch.

C. Stress Patterns

In English not all words receive the same stress. Different content words are stressed; whereas, words without lexical content (a, an, the, in, of, and so forth) receive a minimal stress. A sentence has a regular stress pattern and the variation of the stress of words within the pattern changes its meaning.

D. Rhythm Patterns

The English sentence has a definite rhythm. The important words are spoken slower, and the less important words are spoken quicker.

Structure

A. Sentence Types

1. Simple statements -- positive and negative
2. Questions -- simple, and use of question word
3. Requests and commands
4. Combining simple sentences with AND, BUT, BECAUSE, and so forth

B. Verbs and Verb Phrases

1. Verb BE -- present tense
2. Other kinds of verbs
3. Questions with DO, DOES
4. Present tense with emphasis on the third person singular
5. The going to future tense (future progressive)
6. Past tense

(Different books and teachers choose varying orders of presentation. Usually the verb BE is taught first, followed by the present progressive or present. Some teachers find more continuity by first teaching the verb BE, the present continuous, the past continuous, and then the future

progressive. Thus, the verb BE and the "ing" form of the verb is initially used throughout. It should be noted that this content is suggested as scope rather than as sequence.)

7. **Contractions**

8. **Most common irregular verbs**

9. **Commands**

10. **Tag questions; e.g., He's tall, isn't he?**

C. Function Words

1. **Prepositions: IN, ON, AT, FOR, FROM, OF, WITH, BY, NEAR**

2. **Determiners: A, AN, THE, and other substitute words**

3. **Conjunctions: AND, BUT, OR**

4. **Inflected endings; e.g., plurals of nouns, and so forth**

5. **Question words: WHERE, WHEN, HOW, WHAT, WHY**

D. Adjectives

1. **Position of adjectives relative to word modified after verb to be: It is green. Before a noun: It's a green book.**

2. **Possessive adjectives**

3. **SOME and ANY**

E. Adverbs

Limited work on formation and use of common adverbs including irregulars such as WELL and JUST

F. Pronouns

1. **Personal**

2. **Possessive**

Vocabulary

A. A basic vocabulary of flexible contents includes such items as the following:

1. Numbers, cardinal to 1,000; ordinal to 100
2. Common foods
3. Time of day
4. Articles of clothing
5. Colors
6. Days of the week
7. Months of the year--seasons
8. Basic opposites--adjectives, prepositions, and so forth; e.g., good-bad, on-off
9. Eating utensils
10. Parts of the body
11. Furniture
12. Most important geographical names
13. Common animals
14. Materials--wood, rubber, and so forth
15. Names of occupations
16. Family
17. A few basic two-word verbs based upon verbs plus particles; i.e., PUT ON, WAIT FOR, SIT DOWN, GET UP
18. Countable and noncountable nouns; e.g., butter as opposed to glass, and so forth

The Skills

In beginning English, writing is quite limited, but not ignored. It should be used in direct relationship to the students' use and understanding of the spoken word in the class. Because of their influence on intonation, the question mark, period, and apostrophe are taught at this point. The students are also taught to begin sentences with capital letters.

Suggested proportions of time to be devoted to utilizing the skills of the language follow:

Listening	- forty percent
Speaking	- forty percent
Reading	- fifteen percent
Writing	- five percent

LEVEL II

The Sound System

Review all the sounds and the two basic intonation patterns. Teach the change in stress when the noun complement is replaced by a pronoun: He bought the groceries; He bought them. Work on increased fluency in increasingly longer sentences and on stress and rhythm.

Structure

Review the structures taught at Level I. In the review, strive for more accuracy; more habitual control; more immediate and fluent responses.

A. Sentence Types

1. Review simple statements and questions.

2. Develop the ability to ask questions with question words.

3. Use simple compound sentences--use of AND, BUT, HOWEVER, and other words used to form compound sentences.

    I am going to the movie, but John isn't.

4. Use simple complex sentences--use of WHEN, BECAUSE, and so forth.

    a. Dependent clause

    I was at home when it was raining.

    b. Cause and result

    I missed my bus because I was late.

5. Use the verb followed by two complements as in: He gave her a book; He gave it to her.

6. Use the pronoun-noun combinations as in: Give me a chicken sandwich.

B. **Verbs and Verb Phrases**

1. Further study of irregular verbs
2. Two-word verbs; TAKE OFF, PUT ON
3. Requests with LET'S
4. The verb DO as a substitute word: e.g., What did you do last night?

C. **Function Words**

1. Modal auxiliaries: e.g., CAN, MAY, MUST, SHOULD
2. Conjunctions: e.g., AND, BUT, HOWEVER, and so forth

D. **Adjectives**

1. Position of adjectives
2. Comparison of adjectives--the ER and MORE THAN and the EST and THE MOST
3. SOME, ANY, A LOT OF, and so forth before countable and non-countable nouns

E. **Adverbs**

1. Frequency words such as usually, always, and never
2. Position of adverbs
3. Comparison of adverbs

F. **Pronouns and Nouns**

1. Position of nouns and pronouns
2. Direct and indirect object: Send him the letter. Send it to him.

Vocabulary

A. **Specific types of words**

1. Intensifiers: TOO, VERY
2. TOO and EITHER; e.g., I like her too; I don't like her either.

3. **Simple synonyms, antonyms, and homonyms**

B. **Words used in specific situations**

1. **Government agencies**
2. **Health and health practices**
3. **Clothing and clothing materials**
4. **Family--names of more distant relatives**
5. **Shopping expressions**
6. **Holidays**
7. **Occupations and some responsibilities within them**

The Skills

Writing as a skill is used in direct relationship to the students' use and understanding of the spoken word in class, and the teacher may have the students practice writing from simple dictation or writing answers to questions based on their reading and speaking exercises.

Reading assignments are based on class materials and textbooks. Reading material is also based on the students' understanding of spoken material. Students practice silent reading, oral choral reading, and individual oral reading with emphasis on rhythm, stress, and intonation.

The suggested proportions of time which might be spent in developing skills at level II are:

Listening--speaking - forty-five percent
Reading - thirty-five percent
Writing - twenty percent

LEVEL III

The Sound System

Review the sounds and intonation patterns. Give extensive practice in contrasting words and phrases. Teach the intonation pattern in emphatic speech. Give drills in sentences of increasing length. Emphasize rhythm.

Structure

Review the structures taught at levels I and II practicing for greater ease and fluency and for a more sustained response--that is, for more than one statement or question as a response to the question or statement.

"That's a beautiful bracelet."

Response 1: "Thank you."

"That's a beautiful bracelet."

Response 2: "Thank you. It's new. I bought it yesterday."

A. Sentence Types

Review the following types of sentences: simple, interrogative, imperative, compound, and easier complex.

1. Complex sentences

   a. Use of THAT, either stated or unstated to introduce dependent clauses

      I think (that) he is watching television.

   b. Time and place clauses

      I was eating when they came.

   c. Clauses used to modify

      The book which I am reading is new.

   d. Clauses used as nouns

      The boy asked who was going.

2. Indirect questions and statements

   She asked me where I was going.

   Could you tell me what time it is?

3. Included phrases and clauses

   The girl with the pretty dress is my cousin.

   The girl standing on the corner is my cousin.

I told him I would wait for ten minutes.

She said that she had already met him.

B. Verbs and Verb Phrases

1. Review present, past, and future tenses.
2. Introduce present, perfect, present perfect continuous, past perfect, past perfect continuous, and the future perfect.
3. Introduce the passive with BE; teach only the forms commonly used in realistic speech.
4. Conditional sentences -- sequence of tenses after IF

   If the sun shines, I'll go.

   If he studied, he would understand.

   If he had studied, he would have understood.
5. Gerund -- the ING form of the verb used as a noun
   - a. After such verbs as ENJOY, PREFER, and so forth: I enjoy studying.
   - b. After the preposition: Thank you for helping me. I am fond of dancing.
6. The "marked" infinitive as used in subject, object, or displaced subject position

   I want to study. It is easy to study at school.
7. Idiomatic verb phrases: supposed to, used to, and so forth
8. Causative pattern -- HAVE, MAKE, GET: e.g., He had a new suit made. He got Harry to cut the grass.

C. Adjectives

1. Review of position and comparison of adjectives
2. Multiple modifiers before a noun: e.g., I saw several large green trees.

3. Adjectival phrases; e.g., the girl with the pretty hair, the girl sitting down

4. TOO, VERY, MORE before adjectives

D. Adverbs

1. Review of position and comparison of adverbs

2. Adverbial phrases; e.g., He came by bus. He succeeded through hard work.

3. TOO, VERY, MORE before adverbs

E. Vocabulary

1. Parts of words
    - a. Prefixes
    - b. Suffixes

2. Types of words
    - a. Synonyms
    - b. Autonyms
    - c. Homonyms
    - d. Pronouns; e.g., someone, everyone, nobody, and so forth
    - e. Idioms

3. Hyphenation of words

4. Derivation of words

5. Words used in specific situations or related to specific areas of interest
    - a. Educational opportunities
    - b. Music, literature, the arts
    - c. Leisure time activities
    - d. Government

e. Travel

f. Postal procedures

g. Insurance procedures

h. Driving and traffic regulations

i. Purchasing suggestions

At level III, more time is devoted to reading and writing. Reading skills are sharpened and expanded as necessary tools for obtaining information. Reading comprehension is evaluated through discussions or written questions.

Writing skills are developed to meet the needs of daily living as well as the more formal requirements of education. Give practice in writing dictated sentences and short paragraphs, and introduce letter writing.

The suggested proportions of time which might be spent in developing skills at level III follow:

Listening--speaking - forty percent
Reading - forty percent
Writing - twenty percent

LEVEL IV

By the time the student has reached the advanced levels in his study of English, he finds that the emphasis is on review, practice, refinement, and expansion of the material already introduced in previous classes. At levels III and IV more emphasis is placed on reading and writing in such contextual materials as will help the student to gain insight into social problems of our society, of labor and industry, the American philosophy and way of life.

The advanced classes are more similar to English classes as taught in the regular school system. One of the prime objectives of the teacher is to encourage the student to further his education; therefore, the student should be prepared to compete with the student whose native language is English.

The Sound System

Review sounds and intonation patterns. Choral response is no less important than before, but individual responses should now be longer and more frequent.

At the advanced levels, the students will not be mistaken for a native speaker. On the other hand, they should be able to speak without making significant errors of the kind which lead to misunderstanding or difficulty in understanding.

The aural comprehension of the student should be raised so that he can understand English spoken at a normal to rapid rate of speed. Those students going to college would have as one specific goal the taking of lecture notes.

Structure

Review the materials taught at other levels.

Special attention may be paid to complex sentences and questions, included phrases, indirect speech and direct speech, sequence of tenses, passive voice, grounds, and infinitives.

A. Verbal phrases and idioms

B. Modal auxiliaries

C. Perfect and continuous form of infinitives:

I am glad to have met you.

I seem to be making progress.

D. Subjunctive after a wish: I wish I owned an automobile.

Vocabulary

The goal of the advanced student is the development of a vocabulary equivalent to that of an adult American. He is taught vocabulary by association in context of reading material. He uses vocabulary development texts, word roots, prefixes, and suffixes. He is taught the nuance between the meanings of similar but not identical words. If the student is going to college, it would be necessary to raise his vocabulary level to the point where he could select words of precision and nuance beyond the level of the man in the street.

The Skills

Up to this point, the student has been primarily concerned with learning to read. Now the task shifts to reading to learn. Or more accurately, he now reads for information. He is still learning to read but at a more advanced level and with his attention directed to the information he is gathering.

The student should:

A. Read aloud in order to check comprehension, intonation, and vocabulary.

B. Read silently to increase speed and comprehension.

C. Read at home for practice.

D. Solve problems by noting clues, questioning conclusions, and visualizing written material.

E. Develop understandings of maps, tables, graphs, illustrations, and the like.

Reading material should be graded for the students' level of proficiency. Certain literary selections are usable at this stage when the language can be understood by the students and the content is believed worthwhile. Such literature as Shakespeare's works should not be simplified in order to make them usable. The study of these works and others of a similar nature should be postponed until the students are ready for them as an esthetic experience. Great works should be taught when the student is advanced enough in his control of the language and his understanding of the culture to appreciate them as the native reader does.

Translation for purposes of teaching language is strictly forbidden; students must have practice in attaching meaning to the forms of English without having to rely on their mother tongue. They should be taught to use a dictionary in English and to refrain from referring to a bilingual dictionary.

At earlier levels, the student learned to write; now he writes to inform. He is still learning but at a more advanced stage. He knows the language, and he knows how to present it in script. Now he must be taught to present his information in a format acceptable for the occasion, whether it is a friendly letter, a report to the teacher, or an article for publication. Students who are going on to college need practice in the writing of more advanced forms of English so that they can write essay examinations, term papers, and theses in direct competition with American college students.

Students should do the following:

A. Practice spelling and writing in sequential coherent style.

B. Write from dictation in order to check pronunciation, spelling, punctuation, and hearing skills.

C. Write complete sentences.

D. Write paragraphs.

E. Write compositions.

F. Write clearly and effectively.

G. They should know outlining and style conventions as in friendly letters, formal letters, invitations, reports, newspapers, and so forth.

What the students are taught and the order in which it is taught not only reflects theories and principles of language learning, but to a large extent such matters are controlled by the textbooks and materials used. The teacher should examine as many textbooks as possible in the field of teaching English as a second language. The sequence, organization, and content of the materials in textbooks and a realistic appraisal of students and community will help in planning the curriculum for the course.

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Chapter IV

USING THE AUDIO-LINGUAL APPROACH TO TEACHING ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

The audio-lingual or hear-say approach to second language learning is generally accepted as the basis of modern language instruction. A discussion of some of the specific methods and techniques used in the audio-lingual approach to teaching English as a second language will be presented in this chapter. However, no attempt will be made to examine in detail the theory of or the research supporting the audio-lingual method. For materials on the theory and the research, the teacher should refer to the works of such authorities as Nelson Brooks, Mary Finocchiaro, Charles C. Fries, and Robert Lado.

Some methods of teaching English as a second language put priority on reading literary works, translating from and into the native tongue, learning carefully worded explanations of grammar, and using the choicest possible vocabulary. By contrast, the oral approach puts priority on the speaking language, learning the second language without dependence on the native speech, practicing grammar instead of talking about it, and using the language as an American would employ it in everyday situations.

THE PRIORITY OF SPOKEN LANGUAGE

Advocates of the audio-lingual method believe that speaking with others is the goal of language learning. It develops naturally in children and offers distinct advantages if taught first in second language classes.

Through learning of the sounds in a word like CAUGHT or SURE before they are seen doesn't help spelling, but it does help prevent a Spanish-speaking student from pronouncing them COWT and SEWERY. Learning to speak in meaningful groups of words helps prevent the painful word-by-word speech and reading that printed word translations seem to bring about. From the first, this training develops in the student the techniques of understanding an unknown word or phrase in the context of conversation. This frees him almost immediately from his dictionary and eventually from his teacher.

Indications that ability to say something follows an ability to hear and understand it also gives listening a priority in this method. Intensive work in hearing and speaking helps students reach as quickly as possible the goals of understanding and communicating at a pace near that of native speakers.

Reading and writing are taught along with speaking and hearing, but reading for information or writing to communicate are deferred until the majority of English language patterns have been learned orally. Until that level is reached, the students write only the carefully controlled patterns they have practiced in speaking and listening.

ANALYSIS OF THE FIRST AND SECOND LANGUAGES

Some teachers have the mistaken impression that the audio-lingual method is a "grammarless" approach that never mentions or depends on consciously generalized grammar. This unstructured type of teaching had some vogue at one time, but the audio-lingual approach cannot be described that way today. The more thoroughly the teacher understands the grammar of English and of the students' languages, the better able he is to use the audio-lingual approach in teaching adults.

The problems an adult has in learning a second language are very different from those a child has in learning his native language. For approximately 20 years, the mind and speech muscles of an adult have practiced the automatic habits that make up his language. When he attempts to take on a second set of speech habits, he has the advantage of having learned one set already. Most of his problems in learning a second language are the long-term problems that come with replacing any automatic habit with others.

Problems occur because two languages are never made up of the same sets of sounds out of the thousands of sounds that are possible to produce with the speech organs. No two languages arrange their words in the same order, add the same endings or prefixes, or create the same type of connections between ideas. Only a careful study of both a student's language and English can show what is similar in English and what is different and must be practiced again and again until the new language is as automatic as the old. Practicing that English which seems to give students trouble is one way of handling the interference that the native language creates. There are, however, several comparative grammars that can help the teacher to anticipate and to prepare for problems in language learning.

Another obvious outgrowth of differences between languages is the insistence that the native language not be used in the classroom. So that English will be learned in its own terms and so that the student will think in English rather than in a translation from his language, the vocabulary and grammar should be learned from actions, pictures, and easily understood situations. Learning progresses slowly at first, but the advantages to be gained at the advanced level are worth the patience, card-flipping, and hand-waving at the beginning level. Vocabulary items are controlled while the students are in the early stages of comprehending the grammatical structure (syntax) of the language.

CONTROLLED PATTERN PRACTICE

A selected basic vocabulary is learned until the meanings are unmistakable and speech is automatic. Then the words are shifted and recombined into more complicated patterns of English, using the many connecting words such as WITH, WILL, and BUT until meanings are once more unmistakable and

and speech again becomes automatic. Only a small number of new English words and word patterns can be practiced at any one time. Both grammar and vocabulary are continually controlled and limited so that the most basic and widely used words and phrases come first. In a choice between RETURN and COME BACK, the teacher would choose the second; then he would drill the pattern with LOOK BACK, TALK BACK, WALK BACK, and DRIVE BACK. At this stage, the teacher's total ingenuity goes to keep this endless repetition from being boring. He attemps to involve the students personally in the situations that give the language meaning. This may take the form of an interesting and intimate technique such as making a family tree from magazine pictures with grandparents, parents, brothers, and sisters. A blank circle is left into which the student fits himself as he learns family relationships and practices such patterns as the 'S in MY FATHER IS MY MOTHER'S HUSBAND or singular-plural distinctions in MY FATHER'S HOME BUT MY SISTERS AREN'T. Basic to any technique is the emotional involvement of the student in the situation. This may be accomplished through grouping the class members for specific purposes. For example, structures and intonations can be easily transferred to a realistic situation by having the students write and read their own conversations. A sample procedure follows:

1. The teacher writes a sample conversation on the blackboard; e.g., a telephone conversation between two students or a description of a visit to the doctor.

2. The teacher and students read the conversation.

3. The teacher divides the students into groups of two, three, or *four*, and they write a conversation following a prepared example.

4. The teacher then duplicates (uncorrected) the dialogue, one copy for each student.

5. Together the students and teacher correct the conversations (students usually make similar mistakes).

6. The students take turns reading and acting out the conversation. At this time the teacher checks the students' correcting of the conversation and their pronunciations and the rhythms of speech.

Because patterns and vocabulary must be practiced until speaking and hearing them involve no conscious choice, several problems arise. The teacher may think that because students can hear and speak fluently at one lesson, there is no need for further work on a pattern. Repetition soon after learning and additional reinforcement even later are the necessary minimum for retaining what has been learned. When teachers are trying to teach an English pattern that is continually deflected by the patterns of the native language, even more review is necessary. Most good textbooks present reviews periodically. The teacher can make certain that material is reviewed by keeping a handful of reminder cards with vocabulary and pattern sentences that have been covered. Checking the more recent ones each week and all of them over a month's time helps insure that reviews are made.

Because class hours are limited, make certain that students practice using the English language most of the learning time. Sitting and listening to a teacher lecture may be listening practice, but the teacher should keep in mind that he is essentially enlisted as a native speaker of English to act as an informant for his students. At the beginning levels when a teacher speaks, it should be so that his students can mimic or respond, not take notes.

Knowing when to change pace or content is another important problem. Give up a structure that is causing too many mistakes and come back to it repeatedly over a period of time until it is learned. This usually doesn't happen if only a small amount of new material, easily followed and readily learned, has been included in English already mastered. Textbooks that control the teaching in this way represent a great expenditure of time and classroom testing by highly skilled linguistic teachers. They introduce a new word or pattern only after building up to it and repeat older items while the new bit is being learned.

If supplementary materials are introduced, be sure to follow closely the familiar patterns in the textbook and not introduce too much additional vocabulary for its own sake. Even if the material is controlled, the class will have no feeling of progress unless everyone is involved. Having one student respond at length while the rest of the class sits passively is not encouraging. As in any teaching situation, praise and reward success and create learning situations where success is almost certain for all. When mistakes come, they should be met with understanding. Classroom learning atmosphere has arrived when a student calmly and with interest repeats a corrected sentence. Later on, class interest in the success of each student will probably be shown by good-natured laughter when a student forgets. The teacher's attitude can also protect the student with the handicapped personality who can't take laughter under any circumstances, and the class will usually join in the protection.

THE SPOKEN LANGUAGE

Another major distinguishing feature of the audio-lingual method is its insistence on teaching the spoken language at early levels of instruction. Everyday English in meaningful everyday situations is the context from which the audio-lingual method takes its grammar and vocabulary. It is also the context in which English should be taught at the beginning level of instruction. The most common form in classes and textbooks is the short dialogue built around an ordinary situation with which the student can easily identify. Furthermore, it is recommended that the situation be realistic and social so that the part of American speech that depends on knowing about our society and ways becomes understandable and helps interest the student in the language.

Vocabulary is taught in the context of the spoken language. Reality in sound patterns and grammar patterns means that students are taught from the first to substitute words in answers, to use contractions and weak or fast forms, and to drop the same sounds natives leave out. The answer to ARE YOU GOING TO SCHOOL TOMORROW? would probably not be YES, I AM GOING TO SCHOOL TOMORROW but YES, I AM, or YES, I'M GOING THERE THEN. The effort is always to teach the best possible pronunciation to the student and also to teach the most commonly heard pronunciation as well. This insistence on spoken English means that the teacher must learn to examine carefully his own and his students' speech. I'M EATING A HAMBURGER, I'M EATING A STEAK, I'M EATING A BEAN would be unrealistic practice. What is taught must always pass the test as real language.

The oral language context also furnishes the teaching method used to lead the student from mere oral fluency to final mastery of language. Even though he can say and write the language fluently in a set pattern, the student doesn't know the language until he has learned to use it automatically and meaningfully. The completely controlled speaking and writing situations used at the beginning levels begin to give way in the more advanced levels to situations with more freedom of choice in language. This forces the student to sort among the patterns he has learned, combine them to fit the situation, and respond. In this way mimicry gives way to free selection.

THE SOUNDS OF THE LANGUAGE

People seldom hear all the sounds in a second language, and experience indicates that they must learn to hear sounds before they can begin to learn to say them. For these reasons, controlled and intensive listening is vital at the beginning of an English course and continues to be important at all levels.

Overcoming these sound problems is not only a matter of knowing that the sounds are different. Such retraining takes daily, repeated exercises in hearing and speaking. Slowing down helps some in teaching speech sounds, but there is an artificiality to most slow speech. The voice tends to go up and down more; the sounds in the words like THE, A, TO, IT, HIM change and get longer; many of the blends (LAST TIME--LASTIME) drop; and the contractions such as I'M are recognized.

In the audio-lingual approach, contractions, fast or unstressed forms, and blends are taught along with the slower forms from the very first. If they are not taught from the beginning, the teacher will have to spend many otherwise useful hours later trying to correct slow speech patterns.

There is also a tendency to mispronounce in order to help students hear and spell words. One of the most common forms this takes is to change the final sounds on COULDN'T, WOULDN'T, STUDENT, DIDN'T to sound like DENT instead of DN'T.

If students are to hear the difference between a positive and negative sentence, if they are to sound like excited teenagers or like self-conscious radio announcers, and if they are to hear all the English they know at any point, the teacher must not limit their hearing and speaking to slow, careful patterns.

Making Sounds Visible

There are ways to make sounds visible. Work face to face with a few students. They can sometimes see how the sounds are made by watching the lips, tongue, teeth, and chin. When a teacher is in front of his class, less of this motion is visible to the students. Exaggerate motions, draw cross-sections of the mouth and tongue, pinch the corners of your mouth for R, kiss the back of the hand for W, or use a chart of mouth and tongue positions. The teacher also shapes the hands to show positions and movements of the tongue and mouth. Hands cupped in each other palm up with the fingers curved show the tongue in L position. Swiveling the hands out shows how the sides of the tongue tense to make LD or LT. The left hand can be shaped so that the palm is the roof of the mouth; the inner knuckles are the boney ridge back of the teeth. With the right hand the teacher can then show the differences in the position of the tongue for English sounds for T, D, and TH as compared to the Spanish sounds. Rock the right hand from heel to finger tips to show the GL or KL sounds in GLAD and CLEAN. One author recommends a cut-out cross-section of the mouth cavity with a red mitten over the hand for a tongue. Being able to blow out a match on each side of the mouth but not in the center shows the relaxed sides of the tongue for TH sounds. A pencil or finger pressed down back from the tip of the tongue as RAY, ROW, RUE, RAH are said may help problems in pronouncing the R.

These positions and the drawings that help teachers to teach can be taken from any good book on American English phonetics. A chart of English vowel positions will also be found in most books on phonetics. This can be used in the teaching of short English vowels by showing where they come between the long vowels.

Practicing Sounds

It will help if students don't have to worry about grammar and vocabulary at the same time they are working on hearing and saying sounds. For example, an already familiar sentence or groups of words given for sound only, not meaning, can be used as a beginning exercise in studying English sounds. One form this may take is working with minimal pairs, words that sound the same except for one sound: BIT/BET, DATE/LATE, DIM/DILL, STOP/SLOP. Write two or more words on the board and number them. Drill the class on the pronunciation of the words. Repeat one or more of them and let the class guess the numbers of the ones said. Get the students to say them by pointing out the numbers.

Pass out sheets with groups of words on them and ask the students to check the word that is said. This is a good learning experience and helps to check student progress.

A quick method to isolate consonant sounds either at the beginning, middle, or end of a word is to repeat them or prolong them: TH-TH-TH-THIS-SSSSS. This is especially effective in handling final consonants without the after hum or hiss, instead of saying LAST-UH or BED-UH.

Another way of working out phrases or words that are difficult for students to say or hear is to work backwards being careful to keep all blends intact: RRRRNNNNN, K-K-K-KIRON, L-L-L-LECTRIC IRON, NNNNELECTRIC IRON, AN ELECTRIC IRON.

Concentrate on important sound problems like the difference between THIN and THING. Whether RUNNING ends with /ng/ or /n/ is relatively unimportant. They are both nasal sounds.

Stress, Rhythm, and Intonation

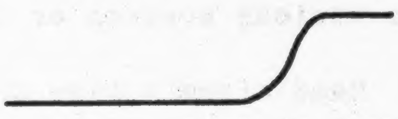
In addition to vowel and consonant problems, the newcomer to English also has trouble knowing when to get louder and softer, go faster and slower, and go up and down as he speaks.

A little extra volume along with a thump on the desk helps show stress. Speaking in meaning groups shows how spoken English emphasizes most nouns, verbs, and negatives. One teacher developed this way of writing to show emphasis: th. GIRL .n th. CAR's m. SISter. The periods represent the shortened vowels in the unaccented grammar words.

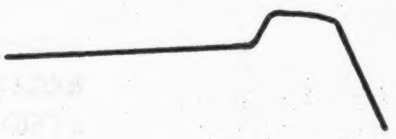
Intonation can be shown by raising and lowering the hand when talking, writing the words in ascending or descending order, or by using illustrative lines.

Some of the more basic intonation patterns with lines to show them are:

SCHOOL:
TO
ARE YOU GOING



DO
WHAT ARE YOU I
N
G?



SC
I'M IN H
O
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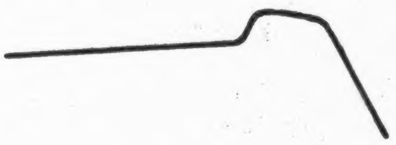

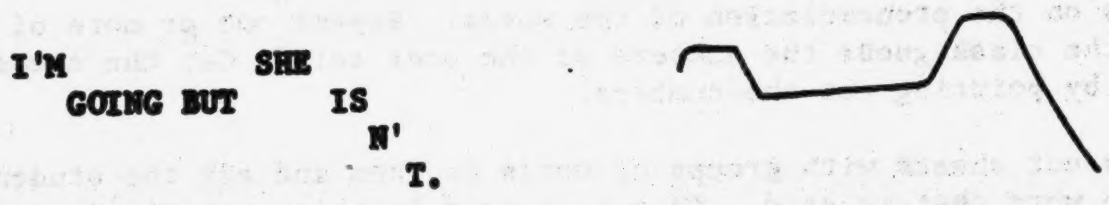

Certain authors have also developed a musical notation with large and small notes and tails to show which direction the voice moves.

Phonetic Symbols

Another way to make sound visible is to use one of the various sets of phonetic symbols developed for this purpose. The International Phonetic Alphabet (I.P.A.) and its adaptation to English by Trager and Smith in An Outline of English Structure are both widely used. They can be learned from the teacher's sections of the English for Today series by the National Council of Teachers of English, from Fries' works and many other sources. The convention is to always use brackets [ ] or slash marks / / to enclose phonetic symbols so that they are not confused with actual spelling.

Overuse of phonetic symbols at early stages may cause spelling problems if less sophisticated students mistake the sound symbols for spelling. Often just one or two symbols over the problem part of a word are enough, or isolated symbols can be put in brackets on the board to use in speaking and hearing drills. It is worthwhile to learn one of the alphabets, but it is questionable whether the students obtain anything of value from such learning at an early level of instruction. It is better to teach the alphabet, observe the rules of English pronunciation, and note the consistencies of English spelling and pronunciation.

SPEAKING THE LANGUAGE

It is recommended that English students at the beginning level spend 80 percent or more of the class hearing and speaking English. Reading and writing are limited to the words and patterns they have already practiced extensively in oral drill.

To keep them talking instead of reading, the teacher can use spoken or visual cues such as hand motions, acting out verbs, flash cards, charts, and pictures. Carefully worked out sets of cards and charts can be bought from various sources or the teacher can make them himself.

Hand signals give the advantage of being able to cue a student to correct an error without interrupting his speech. For example:

POSITIVE--nod
NEGATIVE--shake head
SINGULAR--one finger
PLURAL----two fingers

MANY----hand with fingers spread to count, countable nouns
MUCH----hand cupped as to hold grain, non-countable nouns
PAST----point over shoulder
PRESENT-pendulum swing in front
NOW-----point to floor at feet
FUTURE--wave to front
PERFECT-move from over shoulder to front, PAST TO PRESENT
HERE----point to floor at feet
THERE---point to wall
BIGGER THAN
DIFFERENT FROM
MORE THAN-one card or hand higher than the other
AS BIG AS
THE SAME AS
AS MUCH AS
AS MANY AS-hands or cards on the same level
INVERSION
FOR
QUESTION--right hand is helping verb, left is subject, cross wrists to show subject-verb position of answer.

Substitution Practice

Using visual cues, the teacher can put the students through the oral pattern drills that form the basis of beginning English by the audio-lingual method. After introducing the pattern sentence orally and working with the students on the individual sound problems, the teacher has the class do choral substitution this way:

Pattern: I DON'T HAVE ANY MONEY, BUT I HAVE SOME INK.

Teacher shows MILK and SUGAR cards or says the words.

Students: I DON'T HAVE ANY MILK, BUT I HAVE SOME SUGAR.

Teacher says it, and the students mimic his pronunciation.

Teacher shows SUGAR and WATER cards.

Students: I DON'T HAVE ANY SUGAR, BUT I HAVE SOME WATER.

Listen carefully as they speak, and watch their mouths. Mistakes can be identified even in a large group.

When the class has mastered the rhythm and ideas, turn to the first student and show him two cards. After he finishes, move on to the next student with different cards. Do not stop unless a rather obvious mistake is made and then only for one repetition. Make the students keep up the pace, and make the voice and manner interested and lively. When this type of drill is fast and over soon, it is most effective. Remember to work only for muscular control.

Students accept more of this drill at beginning levels than at intermediate or advanced levels. Before the drill gets tiresome, drop it for something else; then come back for a rerun later. Also, substitute in more than one position at a time:

Pattern: SHE PUT ON HER HAT.

Cues: HE . . . COAT.

Students: HE PUT ON HIS COAT.

or in different positions:

Pattern: THE BOY HIT THE BALL.

Cue: GIRL

Students: THE GIRL HIT THE BALL.

Cue: SAW

Students: THE GIRL SAW THE BALL.

or add on words until the sentence gets too long to handle.

When a drill gets harder, be sure to call on the slower students early. Varying the procedure for calling on students to respond rather than always employing the same procedure helps keep the students attentive.

Question and Answer

By using oral or visual cues, the teacher can have the class continue with a question and answer exercise according to a pattern introduced.

Some of the hardest English grammar to learn involves the third person singular present tense verb form (I WANT, HE WANTS), the simple past (I WANT, I WANTED), and the irregular past tense (I RUN, I RAN), and the inversion of the auxiliaries involved in asking and answering questions (DOES HE WANT THE CAR? YES, HE WANTS THE CAR; NO, HE DOESN'T WANT THE CAR; DID HE WANT THE CAR? YES, HE WANTED THE CAR; NO, HE DID NOT WANT THE CAR).

These forms of the language must be practiced as part of every lesson, even at the most advanced levels. Oftentimes, when a student starts to concentrate on some other part of the sentence, he forgets an S or misplaces the subject.

The teacher should write the question and then the answer repeatedly on the board with arrows to show the error. The wrist-crossing gesture can remind them about position. A magnetic board with easily shifted word plaques may help.

The question-answer approach can also be used to work with new vocabulary items. A set of flash cards with question words and phrases can be used to teach both short answers without the verb and long answers with the verb. For example:

Teacher: DO YOU GO TO SCHOOL EVERY DAY?

Student: YES, I DO. I GO THERE EVERY DAY.

Teacher: DO YOU GO TO SCHOOL EVERY DAY?

Student: NO, I DON'T. I DON'T GO THERE EVERY DAY.

Next, that student asks another student, drawing the verb from a cue.

Early in the class students might give short answers to all helping verbs even before they have studied them:

CAN YOU GO? YES, I CAN. NO, I CAN'T.

SHOULD I GO? YES, YOU SHOULD. NO, YOU SHOULDN'T.

However, some verbs will not fit. Therefore, the teacher must be sure English is being spoken.

Reversing the Question-Answer

To review the question-answer problems, the teacher may give the answer and have the students develop the question. This demands thorough background in the question words and phrases. For example:

Pattern: JOHN IS WRITING A LETTER WITH MY PEN.

Teacher: MINE is the answer. What is the question phrase?

Student: WHOSE PEN?

Teacher: What is the question?

Student: WHOSE PEN IS HE WRITING WITH?

This is especially effective in teaching the preposition last pattern of spoken English.

Question words can also be used to show the arrangement of elements in an ordinary English sentence:

(WHO) (DID WHAT) (TO WHOM) (WHERE) (WHEN) (WHY)

JOHN SENT A LETTER TO HELEN IN RENO YESTERDAY TO ASK HER TO MARRY HIM.

To get students to create longer sentences, get them started and ask progressive questions; then have them say the whole sentence:

Student:	I SAW MARY.
Teacher:	WHERE?
Student:	IN THE PARK.
Teacher:	WHAT TIME?
Student:	AT SIX.
Teacher:	WHEN?
Student:	YESTERDAY.
Teacher:	SAY THE WHOLE SENTENCE.
Student:	I SAW MARY IN THE PARK AT SIX YESTERDAY.

Other uses of question-answer drill are mentioned in various textbooks or can be developed as you teach.

Shaping Complex Patterns

Another common audio-lingual drill that can be carried into the more advanced levels of instruction is combining or reshaping simpler patterns into more complex ones. Think of familiar sentences that can be combined into the pattern or idiom being studied. This is also very helpful in teaching the more complex moods and tenses:

I HAVE A HAT. IT IS RED.: I HAVE A RED HAT.

I GO TO SCHOOL EVERY DAY. I STUDY HARD THERE.: WHEN I GO TO SCHOOL, I STUDY HARD.

HE WROTE THIS BOOK WELL.: IT IS A WELL-WRITTEN BOOK.

Here, use thumbs up for WELL, thumbs down for POORLY or BADLY, a slashing movement waist-high for HALF-FINISHED, a shake of the head for UNFINISHED.

I WANT TO GO TO JAPAN BUT I DON'T HAVE ANY MONEY.: I WOULD GO TO JAPAN IF I HAD SOME MONEY.

The Dialogue

Both the working of individual sounds and the techniques used in getting students to talk are used to familiarize the everyday dialogue used to teach grammar and vocabulary in context.

Whether introduced by the teacher or a tape recorder, the dialogue is usually spoken first. When the students have the speech patterns well established, the books can be opened, the sheets passed out, or the dialogue written on the board.

One teacher's technique is to have pairs of students practice the dialogue as he gradually erases it; thus, they must rely more and more on their memory. This can be done so as to emphasize parts of speech, structural relations, and so forth. Once the dialogue is learned, it can be used with other words.

This can be reviewed by having students fill in missing lines in a dialogue.

Other Talking Situations

Many other creative methods may be used for involving students in oral participation. For example:

1. Questions and answers may be developed about an object in the classroom, a picture in a filmstrip or a magazine, a movie, or a study trip.
2. Word games can be carefully controlled and adapted for the classroom; e.g., Twenty Questions with past, present, or future questions; What Am I? played with objects in the room; progressive phrase memory games in which the last student has to repeat all the short phrases of the other students; taking parts out of a story and recreating the story.
3. A timeline can be drawn on the board from past through present into future. Cards are placed along the timeline, and the students tell a story to practice verb tenses.
4. WHERE and HOW MANY question-answer structures can teach parts of the body or of the school room.
5. After practicing a pattern, especially a more complex one, students can be asked to tell short situational stories that end with the sentence pattern. This not only helps them practice using past verbs, but it lets the teacher know if the students really understand the pattern.

6. **Situations can be developed and tightly structured to help students practice almost any aspect of the grammar of the language:**
    - a. **A fortune teller for PAST, PRESENT, FUTURE**
    - b. **Gossiping over the back fence for I THINK**
    - c. **Asking for a date for WOULD YOU**
    - d. **A marriage counselor for SHOULD HAVE BEEN, COULD HAVE MADE**
    - e. **Telling a little boy what to do when he visits his grandmother for SHOULD, SHOULDN'T**
7. **A student can tell another one how to draw a shape for STRAIGHT, CURVED, ROUND, IT IS, IT HAS.**
8. **A student can tell another student what to do in the room for commands and prepositional phrases.**

The possibilities are unlimited, and these activities are usually a good way to work for understanding after fast drills have worked oral fluency. After the class spirit has formed, funny props like wigs, hats, mustaches, and so forth may be used. Entertaining for its own sake is not teaching English, however. Carefully chosen folk, popular, and theater songs and a few short poems give the students something to sing or say to themselves at home to practice their English. Choose those without poetic inversion or stilted language. Also find ones that embody the grammar being taught.

READING THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

During the first part of a student's English training, he learns to identify and write the letters of the alphabet in English; thus, he has taken the initial steps in learning to read the English language. Following this introduction, the students are made aware of the problems of irregularity in English spelling: the multivalent vowels, the duplicate consonants such as C, S, K and KS, and X to mention just a few.

As students study the sounds of the language, the teacher can write the symbols for the basic sounds on the board and hand out sound tests that will make students aware of many of the English spelling rules, such as the -E to make the vowel long.

As the students learn vocabulary and sentence structure, they will also be required to do more reading in the language patterns being studied. When the students have studied the language for a few months, they should

be encouraged to practice what they have learned by making attempts at sounding out new words; graded materials can be prepared or purchased from textbook companies for that purpose. Folders of graded materials can be kept for free reading by the more advanced students in a class. From the first, the material chosen to be read can also serve to orient the students to the local area, the American economy and government, and American customs. The art of writing and the literary approach to reading should be delayed until the students near native fluency.

New Vocabulary in Reading Materials

In the advanced levels of English instruction, reading is used as a method for reviewing the patterns and vocabulary already learned and for acquiring new, more specific vocabulary. As with any aspect of language learning, the student must be drilled in the vocabulary to be learned. Here is an example of how it might be done:

1. A student reads the first sentence, sounding out new words.
2. Through questions and answers, the teacher tries to get students to figure out new words without a dictionary.
3. When the new word has been understood or explained, it is used in chorus in various patterns.
4. Words of a similar nature are given by the teacher and used in sentences; e.g., LABOR, LABORATORY, LABORER.
5. The structure of the sentence is examined by the question and answer method and by substitution.
6. The next sentence is read, and the procedure is repeated.
7. The next day the students review to see if they remember the new words.
8. Later a matching or completion test can be used to help the students review again.

Materials for Reading

It is not easy to find graded materials written specifically for classes in English as a second language. Most materials must be prepared by the teacher or taken from texts designed for use in adult literacy classes.

Some of the materials that could be used for class reading or for home reading follow:

1. Maps of the city, county, state, nation, world, galaxy -- good for proper names and preposition work

2. Picture magazines and the comics

3. Selections cut from beginners' textbooks not used in class

4. Carefully chosen poems, songs, and materials for more advanced classes

5. A mail order catalog is a picture dictionary

WRITING THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Just as students should be limited to controlled reading until they have achieved native fluency, they should also be limited to controlled writing. Undirected writing at these levels produces too many errors. And the same types of errors are repeated often enough for the students to learn from their mistakes. Until they learn general English vocabulary and grammar, the students should be directed to write only what they have said, what the teacher dictates, and the tight patterns they have been practicing.

Dictation techniques can vary greatly. Some students can work at the chalkboard while the others remain seated and learn from the examples they see produced on the chalkboards.

Flash cards can be set along a time line. GO in past, EAT in NOW position, and SWIM in future position would lead to these sentences: I WENT TO THE SHOW YESTERDAY. I AM EATING A HAMBURGER NOW. I'M GOING TO SWIM TO HAWAII TOMORROW.

Another method for teaching writing is to have the students work with a dialogue until it is memorized. Dictate it and discuss the spelling. Then begin orally to substitute words into the basic framework of the dialogue. When the substitution pattern is clear, give the class a common subject or set of words and ask them to write the new version of the dialogue. Again walk among the students as they write to gauge their learning and identify mistakes early. If a common error recurs, the teacher should develop a review drill before he lets his students go back to writing.

Next give each student his own subject to write about. Correct as many papers as possible while the students are writing. Have some read and correct their work orally. Have those whose papers were not corrected or read hand them in. This gives each student personal attention and cuts down on outside paperwork for the teacher.

The teacher can also scramble the words of a sentence and let the students sort out the meaning:

Scrambled: BIG, WENT, YESTERDAY, TO, SISTER, BASEBALL, THE, GAME, MY

Meaningful: MY BIG SISTER WENT TO THE BASEBALL GAME YESTERDAY.

Ask a series of related questions, and ask the students to answer the questions in a paragraph. For example:

Questions: Where and when were you born? How many brothers and sisters did you have? When did you start to school? When did you come to the United States? What have you been doing since you came here? What are you going to do after you learn English?

Answers: I was born in Guatemala in 1940. I have three brothers and two sisters. I started school in 1947. I came to the United States last year. I have been working at the cannery since I came here. After I learn English, I am going to work in a factory.

By describing an object in the room, writing stories to accompany pictures, finishing incomplete stories or dialogues, and so forth, students learn to write ideas that can follow naturally any of the oral activities of the class.

Controlled writing is writing in which a student cannot make a serious error if he follows directions. By using controlled writing, the teacher assumes that a foreign student needs as much help in learning to write English as he does in learning to speak English, and he assumes that the student needs to reduce the structures he uses most frequently in writing to habit, just as he has already reduced the structures he uses most frequently in speaking to habit. In other words, the student needs patterned practice in writing:

1. Controlled fill-ins

2. Structured questioned paragraphs

3. Completing sentences

4. One controlled sentence (next free)

Controlled writing gives the foreign student an intermediate step between writing lists of sentences and writing compositions. The number of different types of errors the student can make in any one exercise is so reduced that all errors made can be corrected.

Shifting the Control in Writing

As most of the basic patterns of the language are learned, control of speaking and writing can begin to shift, but only minutely at first.

Dialogues can be controlled up to the last line where a WHY NOT question lets the student think up an uncued last line. It should, of course, be in the right tense and make sense. This is an excellent way of telling whether they have understood the dialogue.

This works in pattern practice too and is about the only way to see if they have understood CAN, COULD, WOULD, SHOULD, and other patterns.

After the sound problems are mostly overcome and fluent speaking of the pattern has been reached, get them to complete the sentence with the reason why: BECAUSE . . ., SO I CAN . . ., TO GET SOME . . . . For example:

Cue: WRITE card

Student: I THOUGHT I COULD WRITE A LETTER BUT I COULDN'T.

Teacher: WHY NOT?

Student: BECAUSE I DIDN'T HAVE A PENCIL.

Another technique is to give students different types of words and ask them to write a question and answer using the tense or helping verb.

When: LATELY

Sandwiches: HAVE YOU EATEN ANY SANDWICHES IN THE CAFE LATELY?

Your: HAS YOUR SISTER BEEN SICK LATELY?
NO SHE HASN'T BUT MY BROTHER HAS.

After students have begun to use COULD and WOULD patterns with some degree of fluency and understanding, the teacher can shift the writing control even further. Up to now the students have used writing to learn the language. Now they can begin a slow transition to writing for a known reader, such as a friend, a company, or the teacher. This means personal notes or short friendly and business letters may be introduced as a form of writing.

Set up a clearly understood situation and make a list of the ideas a note must contain:

Situation: YOU ARE GOING TO THE MOUNTAINS FOR THE WEEKEND, AND YOU WANT YOUR SISTER TO DO CERTAIN THINGS FOR YOU.

Content: ASK HER TO GET YOUR CLEANING BEFORE THE SHOP CLOSES ON SATURDAY. TELL HER NOT TO LET THE DOG INTO THE ROOM. REFUSE TO LET HER USE YOUR TENNIS RACKET AGAIN BECAUSE SHE BROKE A STRING THE LAST TIME SHE USED IT.

After reading a short selection about a city, the class could write a typical traveler's letter telling what they did and saw and their reactions to a visit to the city. Always have several models of a type of writing, and encourage the students to take patterns and vocabulary from the models. Once again, these and other different but still heavily controlled writing projects will grow out of each lesson.

In the advanced English classes, the student needs to learn how to communicate more involved concepts. Even though the student has mastered the basic sentence patterns, when he first tries to communicate important ideas and impressions, his control of English structure seems to vanish; it is at this level that translation, their natural language patterns, and the bilingual dictionaries come into play. To counteract this, the teacher has to be especially observant, have drills, give examples, and have the students use their own ideas in structured sentences. Use the same methods as at earlier levels, but make certain the content is more involved. Have the students use simple structures. The students can practice while answering and asking questions based on reading material.

Free Writing

Free writing to an unknown audience, as in the familiar essay, is a temptation that must be resisted in the class in English as a second language. This doesn't mean that a controlled writing project cannot take the form of a newspaper article, a short skit, or even a short short story. However, it should still be limited, with controls to keep the students within the learned patterns and vocabulary of someone writing a second language.

Most native speakers struggle when a teacher says, "Write me a short story," or "an essay on virtue" or "an article on capital punishment."

Don't create a situation in which a student's success in writing depends on his ability to develop an artistic style or an original plot. Don't discourage students from developing style and originality, and praise the students when they are successful in making such achievements in their writing, but don't make the mastery of literary devices necessary for practicing a second language as a communication tool.

Basic Alphabet Learning

As with a native child, the newcomer to the Latin alphabet must learn to recognize the different letters and to name them if he wants to learn to spell. He must then learn to shape the letters.

Flash cards, the usual sound teaching techniques, special literacy workbooks with arrows showing which way the pencil moves to shape the letters, flannel board, and magnetic board letters are many of the aids for teaching the alphabet.

Until the 26 letters are learned, capitals are used. To learn to recognize the letters, the class traces them in the air to begin the shaping process. A blotter embossed with a student's name for tracing can be made.

As words are presented in minimal pairs, so letters are taught in related shapes that offer problems in differentiation: P, B, R; A, H, K; V, W; M, N; G, C, O and so on.

From the first, the work on basic patterns of oral language continues along with the learning of the alphabet. Linguists also say that the teacher doesn't need to wait until the students have mastered writing to begin a very small amount of very easy reading limited to the words and patterns used in oral drills.

The small printed letters are introduced next. Triple-ruled paper is available for students to use in learning to print the letters. Finally a transition is made to a script that is as close to printing as possible.

TEACHING AIDS

Use of the chalkboard, flashcards, hand signals, and collections of objects have a basic use in audio-lingual teaching. The full range of printed, moulded, and mechanical aids are also available for use in teaching English as a second language.

Flannel and magnetic boards, teaching clocks, yellow chalk for plural words, an easily seen calendar, wall maps both labeled and outline, and number and word games can all be used. The following materials are especially useful for teaching at the lower levels of English: ready-made cut-out capitals, small letters, numbers and math symbols, outline maps, weather symbols, indoor and outdoor scenes with movable people, countable and uncountable noun pictures, magnets and magnetic strips to make your own materials usable.

Full-color charts showing the positions of the speech organs to produce different sounds are available commercially; the material is also available in numerous textbooks.

Funny hats, wigs, mustaches, and other theater props help give students something to hide behind when they act out dialogues.

Machines

Of the machines usable in audio-lingual classes, the tape recorder is the most flexible. Some textbooks now come with prerecorded tapes of the dialogues. Some tapes are available from educational electronic suppliers.

The recorders that are used in language laboratories have a mechanism that lets the student record his voice and listen to the contrast without erasing the original track.

In those school districts already equipped with language laboratories, it is easy to learn to use the control panel for personal or prerecorded tapes. A period of adjustment is always necessary for the students when they first go into a language laboratory. Textbooks on how to use the laboratory emphasize that new materials are best introduced by the teacher first, with the laboratory work as a follow-up exercise to help the students gain vocal fluency.

The tape recorder may also be used to let students hear their own classroom speech or to record their conversations. This may be time-consuming in a large class and may demand a separate room. Earphones with multiple-outlet listening jacks are an inexpensive addition that make a separate audio room unnecessary. Some of the students can listen while the others do a different type of work. The tape recorder may also be used to bring into the classroom native voices besides the teacher's. This is a good check on the teacher's tendency to use an artificial, stilted spoken English.

Movies are another aid the teacher may use if he wishes to broaden the experiences of a socially and economically handicapped group of students. With movies, the teacher can bring into the classroom the places, actions, and objects he needs to provide important and meaningful experiences. At the lower levels, the students will study carefully a movie by previewing it with the teacher: turn off the sound, write a script, and have students narrate for the rest of the class. Modern projectors can be stopped on a frame or be reversed easily.

Filmstrips are very adaptable to the teaching situations in English as a second language classroom. The frames in a filmstrip can be turned back easily and do not set the rapid pace a movie does. Hundreds of well-made, simply captioned filmstrips on many subjects are now available for the elementary and high school level. The class will quickly leave any problem captions behind in the question-answer language drills the teacher might use with each frame.

If the teacher can use a camera, he can make his own filmstrips or slides for projection. One educational supply company puts out a camera kit for this purpose, but the items can be purchased separately at a savings.

Many teachers are already familiar with the opaque projector, which lets a teacher use printed material in a classroom without going to the trouble of reproducing it by mimeograph, photo-copier, or other method. The overhead projector has a movable plastic roll in order to save and roll back or reuse projected jottings.

The individual tachistoscope or class projector which shows a line of copy at a time is usually used for helping slow native readers. Some of the available materials seem to be easy enough for advanced second language English students.

New on the market is a Language Master by Bell and Howell. It has printed picture and word or sentence cards with a magnetic strip at the bottom. The card is put in the machine, and as it traverses like a typewriter carriage, the card is read aloud by the machine. The company lists eight sets of cards usable for a class in English as a second language. Much of the vocabulary is given out of context: no A or THE for nouns, no placement for adjectives and no subjects for verbs.

Several companies have graded reading pamphlets or card sets for native readers. Usually coded in color and arranged from easy to difficult, these materials would be excellent if screening proved them usable in the classroom. Sets are available for adults which do not have the juvenile subject-matter problem. No such sets aimed specifically at the second language learner seem to be available at this time, but some textbook companies print graded reading booklets to go with the textbooks. These could be used in the class, or a few copies could be included in graded library bins.

A portable but still very expensive television camera and videorecorder are available for classroom work. The teacher can prerecord for his particular classroom visually-cued oral drills, instructional materials or close-ups of different speakers shaping English sounds, dialogs, and one-sided conversations. These pieces of equipment are becoming more common, and materials for them will probably become available soon.

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Chapter V

SELECTING A TEXTBOOK

Although many excellent textbooks on teaching English as a second language are available, before a teacher selects a textbook he should review some of the principles of language learning and see if the book or material actually employs them. Also the teacher should know what level he will teach and how much the student may already know of the language.

Research and experimentation in English language learning (English as a second language) are not new, but the application of principles developed by the researchers has been in wider use since World War II than prior to the war. It is important for a teacher or a school system to take the time to select textbook materials that are not only lively and interesting and cover what is generally taught at the particular level but that also follow principles that have been found to be the most effective and efficient for language learning.

The basic textbooks and materials selected for teaching English as a second language should do the following:

1. Recognize that language learning is forming new habits in life situations and have content realistically centered around the behavior called for by that situation in our culture. The book should avoid using unreal sentences for the purpose of dull repetition.

2. Place an emphasis on general aspects of language use, and use correct controlled structures of basic sentences rather than isolated words that are later manufactured into sentences (often incorrectly) by the students. Unless there is some urgent, individual reason to change the order, priority in the textbook is given to: (a) all the sounds and the entire phonemic system; (b) the basic word order structures; (c) the function words; and (d) the inflections which are most frequent.

3. Have an abundance of oral and written practice drills that help a student replace his own language's pattern practices. Habits are learned by active practice, not by listening to explanations and nodding in understanding.

4. Begin with the easiest sentence forms and then proceed to the most difficult.

5. Present materials in sequence. Only a small amount of new material should be presented in each lesson.

    a. The material from one level should lead naturally and sequentially into the next level.

b. The material should be graded, and it should present the regular forms of the language before it presents the exceptions.

c. Provision should be made for the constant reintroduction of all the material previously taught with the new material being taught.

d. It should not try to teach all the vocabulary around a topic or all the forms, meanings, or uses of an item of structure at one time.

6. Use vocabulary centered around the interests of a student and around areas where he is most familiar. It should use the most useful words first, the words which will help the student practice the structures; however, the vocabulary items should be kept to a minimum in order to stress the sound system and the grammatical patterns.

7. Present the sound system first before requiring the student to read or write the particular form. The visual ideas should be presented with the sound, and the student should not see the written forms until after he has mastered the patterns orally. So often students see a written form first, decide how the sentences and groups of words should be pronounced, and become so sure of their own renditions that they never hear the correct ones. Some people never learn to hear speech and have great difficulty being understood unless they speak very slowly with evenly spaced, precise tones.

8. Keep grammar rules to a minimum and use them only to point out generalities or help organize and learn related items. Remember, much grammar can be taught by example. It is not something apart from reading, speaking, and writing.

9. Provide listening materials or practice at a realistic rate. The student must learn to notice meaningful sounds, intonations, stressed words, rhythm, and words slurred. A tape should be recorded at a normal rate of speech, not slowly and precisely, and in meaningful segments that fit the memory span of the student.

The selection of a textbook based on sound language learning principles saves the teacher preparation time and helps the teacher utilize his time.

Be careful when choosing a textbook. Some of the best books in the field of English as a second language are directed towards the bright, fast-learning college student. Much of the vocabulary is technical, and the pace is faster than many students can handle. Students may go through the book quickly, but they will learn very little. At the other extreme, caution is necessary because oftentimes material for adults has been adapted from children's stories and reflects the interests of children. A third type of material, that designed for adult literacy education, may be used at intermediate and advanced levels of instruction.

The teacher may find something in a book that is generally not taught at that level. Some teachers pass quickly over it or skip it entirely if the continuity of the course will not be disturbed. Generally, however, most textbooks present material in a sequence with slight variations. Usually a teacher has to select material that fits the majority of the students' needs and then adjust, eliminate, or add to it.

A list of instructional materials has not been included here since it is the intent of this chapter to give the teacher criteria and concepts which can be applied in the proper selection of textbooks and materials. It is apparent that publishers, recognizing the need for appropriate adult basic education materials, are producing new books very rapidly. Teachers sometimes have the responsibility and frequently the authority to decide which textbooks will be used. An examination of all available materials is the only proper way to make the decision; however, as a practical approach, the teacher should examine those materials available in the district and school and keep abreast of current publications.

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Chapter VI

EVALUATION

Evaluation is more than giving tests and assigning letter grades. A good evaluation program provides not only for assessing student progress but for also revealing how well the program and the methods employed in the program are helping the teacher and his students achieve their goals. Whenever a majority of the students do not do as well as expected, it is time to review goals, materials, methods, and philosophy.

Programs and student progress are measured by observation, by informal and intuitive judgments, and by testing. Most teachers are familiar with the various tests used in evaluation:

1. Aptitude or prognostic tests are used to determine a student's capacity to learn a language. However, these have not been adequate or reliable for students learning English as a second language.
2. Diagnostic tests are used to determine students' readiness and their weaknesses and strengths before beginning a program. These are often used as placement tests.
3. Achievement or progress tests are used to discover what a student has learned within a given curriculum.

STANDARDIZED TESTS

Standardized tests provide definite directions for testing and scoring; have been scored on reliability (how often the same students will get the same scores) and validity (what the test actually measures and how accurately it measures it); and provide norms for comparison (scores that are average for each level). David P. Harris has written a brief non-technical pamphlet about standardized tests: English Testing Guidebook. Teachers should read this pamphlet if they have not studied the techniques or terminology used in testing.

Most of the standardized tests for English as a second language have been developed for college-level foreign speaking students. Teachers and administrators also use tests which have been standardized on American school children. Since these tests have not adequately met the needs of adult school programs, some school districts are developing their own tests to set realistic standards of achievement for their programs as well as for general placement.

A list of published tests which have been used for English as a second language follows:

American University Language Center Tests. Washington, D. C.: Educational Services, 1961. A series of diagnostic tests: 1. English Usage; 2. Aural/Oral rating; 3. Vocabulary and Reading Test; and 4. Listening Test. These are used for United States State Department Grantees and for college-oriented students.

Burnett, Richard W. Basic Reading Inventory. Bensenville, Ill.: Scholastic Testing Service, 1966. A basic reading test for illiterates, it also discriminates up to the fourth or fifth grade level of literacy. It identifies basic skill strengths: Part 1 tests vocabulary; Part 2, ability to hear beginning sounds; Part 3, synonymous reading; Part 4, synonymous listening; and Part 5, reading context and listening material.

California Achievement Test, (11th Edition). Monterey, Calif.: California Test Bureau, 1957. Scores are given in the areas of reading, arithmetic and language, grades one through fourteen. Performance is given by grade placement and in profile form. Percentile and age norms are provided. These tests are useful with advanced English as a second language students to determine their readiness for high school subjects.

Davis, A. L. Diagnostic Test for Students of English as a Second Language. Washington, D. C.: Educational Services, 1953. This is a usage test prepared by the American University Language Center. Section 1 tests general grammar exclusive of verb forms; section 2, verbs; and section 3, idiomatic vocabulary. It is used to show readiness for college work.

English Examination for Foreign Students: Including a Test of Non-Verbal Reasoning. Princeton, N. J.: Educational Testing Services, 1947.

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King, Harold V., and Russell N. Campbell. An English Reading Test for Students of English as a Foreign Language. Washington, D. C.: English Language Services, 1956. This test is designed for college-oriented students.

Lado, Robert. English Language Test for Foreign Students. The Michigan Test of English Proficiency. Ann Arbor, Mich.: English Language Institute, University of Michigan, 1962. It is used to test non-native English speaker's knowledge of structure.

Lado, Robert. Test of Aural Comprehension (Form A, B & C). Ann Arbor, Mich.: English Language Institute, University of Michigan, 1957. It is used to test ability of non-native speakers of English to understand spoken English. The student listens to sentences or short paragraphs, then selects from three pictures or phrases the one which corresponds best to what the examiner read.

Manuel, Herschal T. Cooperative Inter-American Tests. English edition. Princeton, N. J.: Educational Testing Services, 1960. This is a test of general educational development.

Standard Achievement Test. New York: World Book Company, 1952. This test was standardized on American high school students to determine readiness for high school or college.

EVALUATIONS BY THE TEACHER

Interviews and Observations

Interviews are frequently used to place students at their appropriate levels. At the beginning of a program, the teacher can also spot check what the class knows by asking questions based on the structure and vocabulary of the language. Such individual or group interviews can tell in part what the teacher needs to stress or review in his program.

During the program, the teacher should constantly evaluate (even if informally) the students' progress. This does not mean that he needs to give formal marks each day, but he should try to evaluate the work of a few students each day. Establish which items of the students' work are to be evaluated, and rate the students only on those items. (This is done informally during class recitation.) During a written assignment, ask a few students questions each day. If a tape recorded lesson is being used, walk among the students and listen to their responses. If observations are recorded, the teacher will have a collection of individual marks and interviews which will help him evaluate student performance objectively. Such informal observations are especially valuable since students are generally at ease, and their responses are natural. Grade or record observations as inconspicuously as possible.

Some teachers become sensitive to student responses without much training. Others need special training. A list of suggestions to help teachers evaluate more objectively and accurately follows:

1. Try to keep attuned to language errors, patterns, and stresses. If students often make the same mistakes, do not get used to the errors. The student must be understood by the native speakers of the language.

2. Permit students to complete their own answers. Encourage them and avoid embarrassment, but give them a chance to answer completely.

3. Try to elicit a complete response rather than a simple yes or no, or a nod.

4. Consider each skill separately. Decide what is to be evaluated each day and stick to it. Sometimes a favorable impression is made if a student follows directions quickly or writes well and, consciously or unconsciously, other evaluations are effected. Sometimes the teacher is so pleased by a student's glibness that he ignores his poor pronunciation, inverted word order, and incorrect structure or word usage. The average American listener might not

understand him or might even misinterpret what he says.

Other Nonwritten Forms of Evaluation

If a teacher has a tape recorder, he can test the students' ability to hear, understand, and speak; he can also use the taped material to evaluate student achievement.

Set the tape recorder in "record" position. Start the machine; then push the instant stop. While students are writing an assignment, call one student to the desk. Ask him a few questions, releasing the instant stop when he answers. Push it in again when talking resumes. Only the student's responses to questions are recorded. (Be sure to record the name of the student at the beginning of each student's interview.)

If an Edex classroom communicator or similar equipment is available, present the lesson and ask a question with four possible answers. The students press an A, B, C or D button on individual responder machines. From a computer, the teacher can tell immediately the number of people who answered correctly and which people chose what incorrect responses. The machine can also provide a score for individual ranks in the class.

WRITTEN TESTS

Do not give essay tests in a beginning language program. Completion, substitution, transformation, writing a pattern previously practiced orally, and question/answer types of tests, as well as complete or partial dictation quizzes, are very effective. For a good variety of questions at different levels, see Techniques and Procedures in Second Language Teaching by F. K. Decanay and J. Donald Bowen. Robert Lado's book, Language Testing, gives a wide variety of model tests for listening and speaking evaluation. Nelson Brooks' Language and Language Learning also has a good chapter on test selections.

Picture clues (either drawn on the board or reproduced on paper, or charts or individual cards) are good to use for completion tests. Prepare a list of numbered questions with blanks to be filled with the item being tested. Number the pictures, and tell students to use picture number 1 for blank 1. Suppose there is a picture of a mother washing her daughter's face. Use the picture as one of many pictures used to test the students' understanding of WASH as a verb. In the directions, tell the students to use the subject given in the sentence if it is different from the picture. The questions might be:

1. She ________________ every morning.

2. They ________________ last night.

3. He is going ________________ next week.

4. I'm ________________ now.

5. She has ______________ her face.

6. You don't like to ______________

7. Do you like ______________?

A teacher can use the same test a number of times simply by changing the picture.

A series of pictures or props can be used to test the students' understanding of specific types of words; e.g., contractions, nouns, pronouns, and so forth. However, remember that vocabulary and spelling are also being tested. For example, the picture of the woman washing the child could be used on a number of different tests:

Test A. ______________ is Mrs. Brown.
(subject pronoun)

Test B. ____________________ name is Mrs. Brown.
(possessive pronoun)

Test C. Give____________________ this book.
(objective pronoun)

Test D. _________________ in the living room.
(Contraction)

The students' understanding of time can be tested by using clock charts, a clock with movable hands, or cards with clocks drawn on them. Tell students to look at the clocks and put numbers in each blank. Cross out either "to" or "after" to make the sentence read correctly:

1. It's ______________ minutes to/after ________________.

2. It's ______________ : ________________.

MULTIPLE-CHOICE TESTS

Most individuals are familiar with multiple-choice tests for testing vocabulary; nouns and adjective problems; verb structures; reading; idiomatic usage; and prepositions. Word order, listening comprehension, recognition of sounds, and situation responses can also be tested with multiple-choice types of tests. The teacher may ask a student to pick the best answer, or he may have two correct answers and ask the student to choose the incorrect one.

The following are some examples:

1. Word order. Which of the following has the correct word order:

    a. Has been David there?

    b. Been David there?

    c. Has David been there?

2. Sound systems. (The teacher says a word.) Choose the following word that ends like it:

    a. Kiss

    b. Keys

    c. His

    or Which word am I saying?

    a. Bit

    b. Beat

    c. Bat

3. Listening comprehension. The student hears a phrase or clause and chooses the correct paraphrase of the material he heard, or he hears a question and chooses the correct answer. Give him a mimeographed series of pictures and tell him to choose the one that best describes a statement.

4. Situation response. Mark the best answer for "How do you do?"

    a. Fine, thank you.

    b. Hello.

    c. Better now.

Some Suggestions for Making Multiple-Choice Tests

1. Test what students have learned and what was said would be tested.

2. Test one thing at a time in each question, but give varied questions that represent many common problems.

3. Choose distractors (wrong answers) from errors actually made by the students. If students have a common native language, analyze the typical mistakes these students make. Some teachers keep card files of common mistakes. The teacher can also get many distractors from completion, dictation, substitution, and transformation tests or from class recitations.

4. Don't try to trick students. Try to ensure success rather than to erect obstacles.

5. Arrange questions in order of difficulty. A student shows less anxiety for a test when the easy questions are given first.

6. Group the same kind of questions together. Don't test spelling and items regarding the culture at the same time that you are testing structure and grammar. Use short, simple questions for oral comprehension or the test will be a memory test only.

7. Type questions carefully, and arrange them clearly. Adult students have fewer problems if the question or statement is repeated with the problem area underlined; for example:

    a. He is here.

    b. He am here. (Distractor)

    c. He are here. (Distractor)

a. b. c. a. is)
rather than: He (is, am, are) here. or He (b. am) here.
c. are)

8. Try to avoid using contractions when testing the students' knowledge of the structure of the language.

9. Make tablets (stencil keys) for quick grading. If questions are typed as suggested above, line all the answers in a common vertical line. Using one of the printed tests, punch out the letter in front of the correct answer with a hole punch. Place the master answer sheet over each student's test and if the student has placed an X on the a, b, or c, the X will appear in the hole. If no X appears, circle the letter through the hole with a red pencil. Students then know that they missed that question, and they know which answer was correct. One-third grading time can be saved by using a tablet.

10. Write simple directions using only a few words. Give an example or two and a trial sentence or two. Be sure students know whether they are to mark correct answers or wrong answers.

11. At first, allow students sufficient time to answer the questions. Later, time limits may be set. Be casual and friendly. The teacher may frighten them if he starts time limits too soon. If there is a time limit, tell students at the beginning of the test.

12. If answer sheets are to be used, teach students how to use them. Adult students can use them even at the beginning.

13. Grade papers and discuss the results with students as quickly as possible. Some teachers give students two tests with a carbon so that the student can keep one. At the end of the exam, the teacher reads the correct answers after the original test has been collected.

14. Revise tests frequently and discard bad questions. Keep a file of good questions. A question is not good if just as many or more poor students as good students answer it correctly. The test is not good if the best students don't get the best scores.

15. Don't give the same questions or tests too often.

16. Test frequently. This acts as a review and shows the student his progress. The student sees he is moving ahead. Students get used to taking tests, and they remember correct answers. Tests also show the teacher where he needs to review.

In any evaluation, remember to combine trained observations and intuitive judgment with any test results. A student may be ill, worried, or tired. Remember, the real test of a student's ability is not if he can answer controlled questions or follow patterned drills but if he can communicate spontaneously.

EVALUATION BEYOND THE CLASSROOM

It is easier to evaluate the student's performance in the classroom than his performance after he has finished studying English. The teacher will find it very difficult to predict reliably a student's performance in life, but when the student leaves the school he should have a knowledge of the facilities which the community offers him vocationally, avocationally, and socially. This means the teacher should do some research in the community. Many facilities which the native takes for granted are unknown to these students. Consider the following:

1. The public library. Visit the library and have students obtain library cards.
2. Medical facilities. Are there free dental and medical clinics?
3. Counseling facilities. Does the community have a special center for the foreign born or a language community?
4. Social activities. Are there clubs and groups the students would enjoy belonging to? Often students will confine their activities after school to their own language group unless they are made aware of their welcome in other activities.
5. Recreational facilities. What facilities does the city have, where are they, are they free?

6. Educational opportunities, (personal enrichment courses, high school courses, college courses, vocational courses).

7. Vocational opportunities and facilities. Does the community have a state employment center or private employment agencies? How is a job application filled out, and how is an interview conducted?

In order to obtain better knowledge of the school's success in its English as a second language program, teachers should encourage students to to maintain contact with the school. It is suggested that the school have a bulletin board where the activities and achievements of former students are posted. If desirable, follow a policy of contacting all former students, but students are often difficult to trace. There may be vocational and social agencies in the community which can help in evaluating the former students' success. If an evaluation form is kept, many agencies will cooperate, and this information will aid in preparing the students. If the agency indicates that failure is the result of an insufficient knowledge of English, the teacher is in a better position to counsel students, motivate them, and improve the teaching program.

Students who do not complete their course of study are a source of concern for their former teachers. If a teacher follows a policy of having former students maintain correspondence with the school, the teacher will be in a better position to understand the students' reasons for dropping out. The following are the four major reasons for students to leave school who are enrolled in courses in English as a second language: departure from the United States; illness; financial necessity; belief that the class does not meet his needs. If the school practices a policy of following-up on students who have left, the counselor and the teacher may be able to help the students in the last two categories. It is possible that a student may be directed to the proper agency for help in obtaining a job if he has a financial problem, or a student may be shown that increased job opportunities are available to him if he obtains a greater command of English.

If a student leaves school because he feels the class does not satisfy his needs, he may have valid reasons for making his decision -- reasons that may suggest perhaps the student has been incorrectly assigned and should be in another class, or perhaps he needs an orientation program which will explain the teaching program and inform him about the community. If there is a short orientation program, there are many people in the community speaking the students' languages who usually are willing to donate their services. Also there could be mimeographed explanatory material written in the languages of the students to be given to all new students; many students are unfamiliar with the teaching methods of the audio-lingual approach and do not understand the purposes of the program unless the purposes are explained in detail.

It is often difficult to predict a student's likelihood of success in high school or college where his English skills have to be good enough to make it possible for him to compete with his fellow students. Colleges and high schools indicate that many foreign students fail every year because of an inadequate English background. It is recommended that teachers maintain contact with the foreign student advisers in the schools the students are most likely to attend.

THE TEACHER EVALUATES HIMSELF

In addition to evaluating the progress of the student and the effectiveness of the program, the teacher should evaluate his own performance. The following questions may be used as a guide in making such an evaluation:

1. Do you use a record player or tape recorder for language models or to record your students' performances?

2. Do your students practice English in class, or do they spend a large portion of their time listening to teacher explanations?

3. Do you involve all of the students in the classroom activities?

4. In your beginning classes, do your students spend the major portion of their time on listening and speaking rather than reading and writing?

5. Do your students learn dialogues, stories, or drill material so that they can respond automatically?

6. Do you use sufficiently varied materials to maintain the interest of your students?

7. Do you introduce materials at a controlled rate so that your students are able to achieve mastery of new material? Do you review frequently?

8. Do you use a normal rate of speech and normal pronunciation in speaking to your class?

9. Do you use choral responses?

10. Do you use structure pattern drills?

11. Is the English model followed by choral response, individual response, and student-student communication?

12. Are you concerned with the accuracy of your students' pronunciation?

13. Do your students learn vocabulary in a meaningful context rather than as separate words?

14. Do you use songs and games that provide practice in the use of correct English as supporting activities?

15. Do you use visual aids?

16. Do you incorporate the surrounding culture of the United States in your classroom?

17. **Do you know of the agencies and facilities of your community which would be beneficial to your students?**

18. **Can you counsel your students concerning further education?**

19. **When you give a new type of assignment, activity, or test, do you demonstrate fully how it is to be done?**

20. **Does your class period always contain some review of old materials and ample demonstrations of new material?**

21. **Are the assignments you give busy work or meaningful language learning exercises?**

22. **Do you correct your students' oral and written mistakes as soon as possible?**

23. **Does your evaluation of your students relate to what you have taught and what is the most important at their level?**

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Lado, Robert. Language Testing: The Construction and Use of Foreign Language Tests. London: Longmans, Green and Company, Ltd., 1961. The author discusses how problems in language skills may be tested. He also describes fundamental test statistics. It is recommended reading for all teachers of English as a second language.

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Chapter VII

ADMINISTRATION

The subject of teaching adults to communicate in English is one of the oldest offerings in the adult education program. This very fact, however, has made it difficult to infuse new methods, materials, and philosophies into the program. It is important that the administrator understands that teaching English as a second language requires special skills and special training.

While most non-English speaking people eagerly attend the classes offered in English, many are reticent to seek out the classes. This may be due to cultural backgrounds, timidity in strange surroundings, or just their lack of the basic skills of communication. In these cases, the school has a responsibility to locate the students. Some suggested sources to assist in locating students in a community follow: U. S. Immigration Service; alien address reports; state and federal census data; and institutions and organizations that deal with large groups of people, such as the post office, libraries, hospitals, welfare agencies, churches, retail markets, labor unions, and employment agencies.

Publicity for the classes is also important. It must be remembered that a technique that works in one situation may not work well under other conditions or at all times. As in a business, the satisfied customer is still the best advertisement. Students and teachers should be spokesmen for their classes. In some communities, an advisory committee representing the news media, religious orders, labor unions, nationality groups, and service clubs can be of assistance to the school. A small and active advisory committee is better than a large, dormant one. Other means of publicity that usually prove satisfactory are: "throw-away notices or papers; spot announcements on radio and television; newspaper notices; signs and posters.

The location of the classes has an important bearing on their success. Classes are usually held either in a school as part of a larger program of adult education or in community facilities in a neighborhood where there is a concentration of potential students. Transportation facilities and the mobility of the students will often be the deciding factors in choosing the desirable location for a class. In any case, the physical conditions of the room also warrant attention; the adult-size desks or tables and chairs, chalkboard space, lighting, heating, storage spaces, parking areas, and outside lights are important features to be considered.

The administrator must determine the time and hours of the class, the length of the course, and the number of classes to be offered; he must also maintain a reasonable class size. Class size should not exceed the norm established for other academic classes in the adult program. Having determined the need for a class in English as a second language, located the students, publicized the class, and established a desired location for the class, the administrator faces the most important factor in the operation of the class: selecting the right teacher (see Chapter I).

The administrator can be of assistance to a teacher by obtaining textbooks, instructional materials, and audio-visual aids and by coordinating student-counselor contacts. To encourage the teachers to improve their techniques and to increase their knowledge of the subject in particular and adult education in general, the administrator should supply the teacher with information regarding classes, institutes, other inservice training opportunities, and special scholarships and grants available to instructors. In many instances, a district or school has organized its own inservice classes, with demonstration classes to show effective teaching techniques. Observing a master teacher in a classroom situation will offer many functional ideas that will have direct application for the less-experienced teacher.

The administrator should be involved in the orientation of the new student. The reception that an adult student receives on his initial entry into a school will leave a marked impression. The orientation may vary from an understanding attitude when the student registers to a more complete testing and counseling program. A comprehensive counseling program includes initial testing (both oral and written) to determine the proper class placement of the student followed by achievement testing in the class, usually administered by the teacher. In addition to testing, the foreign student may benefit by personal counseling to assist with his adjustment in a new physical and cultural environment. In such cases, assistance and information outside the school should be coordinated by the administrator. Referrals may involve many community agencies, such as foreign student institutions, language clubs, ethnic group associations, religious orders, employment agencies, immigration officials, medical facilities, law enforcement organizations, and many others, depending on the situation. In order to achieve these goals more effectively, the administrator should consider involving nonprofessional aides provided by community action agencies or welfare agencies (through Title V or Title II-A, Economic Opportunity Act of 1964.) Such persons may serve as teacher aides in the classroom, be responsible for school-home contacts in connection with follow-up activities of the school, or go into the neighborhoods where the potential students live in order to acquaint them with the educational program of the adult school.

The administrator will find it helpful if he can establish some guidelines that will help him evaluate the program. He might obtain the answers to such basic and fundamental items as the following:

1. What is the comparison of attendance with enrollment?

2. What is the comparison of attendance with total number of aliens in the community?

3. Are the newly arrived immigrants attending class?
4. How well are the communication skills being taught?
5. Are the foreign born being assisted to participate in the community?
6. Are the students trained in the English as a second language classes continuing their studies leading to citizenship?
7. Are the native born accepting the foreign born into community activities?

The school administrator must have an unusual degree of patience and understanding, for he has the responsibility for directing the activities of large groups of people. This is particularly important to remember when the people he is dealing with have communications' problems, come from different countries, have different cultural and ethnic backgrounds, and often have different sets of social and economic values. The non-English speaking adult is a very rewarding person to have as a student. He invariably places a very high value on the instruction he receives, has great respect for the teacher, and is quick to acknowledge efforts made in his behalf.

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